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Controlling one-dimensional Langevin dynamics on the lattice

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Stochastic evolutions of classical field theories have recently become popular in the study of problems such as the determination of the rates of topological transitions and the statistical mechanics of nonlinear coherent structures. To obtain high precision results from numerical calculations, a careful accounting of spacetime discreteness effects is essential, as well as the development of schemes to systematically improve convergence to the continuum. With a kink-bearing ϕ^4 field theory as the application arena, we present such an analysis for a (1+1)-dimensional Langevin system. Analytical predictions and results from high resolution numerical solutions are found to be in excellent agreement. [S0556-2821(99)02822-2]

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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years there has been growing interest in extracting nonperturbative quantum dynamical information such as topological transition rates from numerical Langevin and Monte Carlo solutions of classical field theories at finite temperature [1]. At the next level of sophistication, several attempts have been made at developing schemes that treat lowlying modes classically and high frequency modes quantum mechanically [2]. Moreover, the equilibrium and nonequilibrium classical statistical mechanics of nonlinear coherent structures such as kinks has historically received much attention [3] in the condensed matter literature. Until fairly recently, computer memory and performance restrictions were sufficiently severe that Langevin evolutions could only be carried out at fairly low levels of accuracy and resolution. However, present-day supercomputers have overcome this problem, at least for low dimensional systems, and one can well contemplate systematically studying, understanding, and improving the accuracy of stochastic evolutions. In this paper we present just such a study applied to (1+1)dimensional Langevin systems.

Our focus will be on lattice errors for quantities computed at thermal equilibrium. In calculations of this type, a stochastic partial differential equation (SPDE) with a fluctuation-dissipation relation is solved as an initial value problem using finite differences. Because of the fluctuation-dissipation relation, the system is eventually driven to thermal equilibrium and at late times one may measure values of thermodynamic quantities as well as time and space dependent correlation functions. These quantities can depend on the lattice spacing, Δx , on the total system size, on the discretization

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used for spatial operators, and on the time stepping algorithm used to solve the resulting set of coupled stochastic ordinary differential equations. In one space dimension a fairly complete description can be given, since the question of lattice effects is one of convergence properties of SPDE's rather than of renormalization.

The configurational part of the partition function of a classical field theory in one space dimension is free from divergences. In particular, quantities such as kink densities, measured from finite difference solutions of the corresponding SPDE's, converge to a well-defined limit as the lattice spacing is reduced towards zero. The question of exactly how the convergence scales with Δx is still a matter of practical importance: numerical solutions are limited by the available computing power and memory to a finite range of values of Δx . While finite volume effects can be important in small lattices, they are not important if the total lattice length is much larger than the longest correlation length. We will assume that this is always the case in the considerations below.

A complete constructive procedure for determining the spatial lattice error, and possibly eliminating it to some order in Δx , exists. The method proceeds as follows. In equilibrium, the probability of a given set of configurations can be calculated from the static solution of the Fokker-Planck equation corresponding to the particular spatial discretization and time-stepping algorithm applied to the SPDE of interest. With time-stepping errors tuned to be subdominant, the transfer integral [4] corresponding to the lattice Hamiltonian can be evaluated to some given order in Δx . Correlation functions and thermodynamic quantities, which can all be extracted from the transfer integral, explicitly exhibit lattice dependences allowing the convergence to the continuum to be read off directly. We describe this procedure in more detail below.

In more than one space dimension, methods have been devised to improve the convergence to the continuum of field theories formulated on the lattice [5]. These methods rely on

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renormalization group techniques and require an input from either perturbation theory or non-perturbative numerical studies. No direct analytic formulation of nonperturbative physics is, however, possible in general. In contrast, in one space dimension, the physics of greatest interest is the (thermo)dynamics of kinks which is nonperturbative. The transfer integral allows us access to nonperturbative physics and can be formulated in the continuum as well as on the lattice [6]. Trullinger and Sasaki obtained the lowest-order lattice corrections to the Schrödinger equation that emerges from the transfer integral [7]. They are proportional to Δx^2 and are equivalent to a corrected on-site potential. As we show below, the latter result can be adapted not only to compute the order of the lattice errors but also to introduce a local counterterm in the stochastic evolution equations that improves the convergence to the continuum.

The class of problems considered here are (1+1)-dimensional classical field theories defined by the Hamiltonian:

$$H = \int dx \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right)^2 + V(\Phi) \right]. \tag{1}$$

The corresponding continuum SPDE,

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \Phi(x) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \Phi(x) - \eta \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Phi(x) - V'(\Phi) + F(x,t), \quad (2)$$

is second order in time, where with $\beta = 1/kT$, the noise and damping obey a fluctuation-dissipation relation:

$$\langle F(x,t)F(y,s)\rangle = 2\eta\beta^{-1}\delta(t-s)\delta(x-y).$$
 (3)

In this paper we will adopt the example of the double-well Φ^4 theory: $V(\Phi) = -(m^2/2)\Phi^2 + (g^2/4)\Phi^4$. We shall work in a dimensionless form of the theory given by the transformations: $\phi = \Phi/a$, $\bar{x} = mx$, and $\bar{t} = mt$, where $a^2 = m^2/g^2$. Under these transformations, the original Hamiltonian becomes $\bar{H} = H/(ma^2)$ where \bar{H} is of the same form as the original Hamiltonian H, except that the potential $V(\phi) = -(1/2)\phi^2 + (1/4)\phi^4$.

This theory admits the well-known (anti-)kink solutions which, at zero temperature, are exact solutions of the static field equations connecting $\phi = -1$ at $x = (+) - \infty$ to $\phi = +1$ at $x = (-) + \infty$. In thermal equilibrium, the balance between noise and damping is manifested in the balance of nucleation and annihilation of kink-antikink pairs [8]. At low temperature, Wentzel-Kramers-Brillouin (WKB) techniques applied to the transfer integral [9,10] yield the following prediction for the density of kinks:

$$\rho_k \propto (E_k/kT)^{1/2} \exp(-E_k/kT),\tag{4}$$

where $E_k = \sqrt{8/9}$, the energy of an isolated kink. Supporting numerical evidence exists [11], but precise results have been difficult to obtain until recently due to the large amount of computing time needed at temperatures low enough to clearly distinguish kinks. The best results obtained so far are for a special double-well potential where exact theoretical

computations can also be carried out. In this case, it has been shown that the theoretical and numerical results agree within statistical bounds set by the finite volume of the simulations [12].

The classical partition function for a ϕ^4 theory, in any spatial dimension $2 \le D < 4$, is super-renormalizable; i.e., there are a finite number of perturbative diagrams that are divergent in the continuum, but can be appropriately subtracted by the inclusion in the theory of a finite number of suitable counterterms. The situation is different for D=1: the continuum partition function is finite and no renormalization is necessary.

An alternative approach to the one described here has been suggested by Gleiser and Müller [13] who have proposed a perturbative counterterm for use in (1+1)-dimensional Langevin equations. A weakness of the latter proposal is that it relies on an approximation to the free energy; in many situations the latter is a poor indicator of the true dynamics of field theories [14]. Moreover, their counterterm is based on an approximate effective potential calculated by perturbing about a uniform state. We will show below, with both analytical and numerical results, the inadequacy of their perturbative counterterm in dealing with the convergence to the continuum.

The paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II we consider the evolution of the probability density of the discretized SPDE. We summarize published calculations [15,16] of the effect of time discretization on the equilibrium density. The transfer integral is introduced in Sec. III. We perform calculations at finite Δx and show that the leading order corrections to the continuum of observable quantities are proportional to Δx^2 . An examination of the form of the Schrödinger equation at finite Δx reveals a natural choice for a local counterterm with which to improve the convergence properties of discretized Langevin equations. The alternative one-loop approach of Gleiser and Müller is examined in Sec. IV. Numerical results are presented in Sec. V. In Sec. VI we end with a discussion of our results.

II. THE DISCRETE TIME FOKKER-PLANCK EQUATION

Our first step in determining the (equilibrium canonical) distribution to which a given Langevin dynamics converges for long times is to derive the corresponding Fokker-Planck equation. This can be done on the lattice as well as in the continuum.

On the lattice, an SPDE is solved by updating 2N quantities $\{\phi_i(t), \pi_i(t)\}$ where $i=1,\ldots,N$. We take the lattice Hamiltonian in one space dimension, H_{lat} , to be

$$H_{\text{lat}} = \Delta x \sum_{i=0}^{N} \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi_i^2 + S(\phi_i) \right],$$
 (5)

with

$$S(\phi_i) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{(\phi_{i+1} - \phi_i)^2}{\Delta x^2} + V(\phi_i), \tag{6}$$

$$V(\phi_i) = -\frac{1}{2}\phi_i^2 + \frac{1}{4}\phi_i^4. \tag{7}$$

The corresponding Fokker-Planck equation for the 2N variables has a static solution that can, in principle, be attained at late times in a Langevin simulation (in the sense of ensemble averages over individual simulations).

In practice the time as well as the space discretization of a Langevin equation leads to errors. The simplest stochastic time stepping is of the Euler type and can be written as

$$\pi_{i}(t + \Delta t) = \pi_{i}(t) - \Delta t \left[\eta \pi_{i}(t) + \frac{\partial H_{\text{lat}}}{\partial \phi_{i}(t)} \right] + \xi_{i}(t),$$

$$\phi_{i}(t + \Delta t) = \phi_{i}(t) + \Delta t \pi_{i}(t). \tag{8}$$

We have chosen the case of additive Gaussian white noise, related to the damping η by the (suitably discretized) fluctuation-dissipation relation:

$$\langle \xi_t(t) \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \xi_i(t)\xi_j(t') \rangle = \frac{2\eta}{\beta} \frac{1}{\Delta t \Delta x} \delta_{ij} \delta_{tt'}.$$
 (9)

In order to understand the effect of time discretization, it is possible to write a discrete time Fokker-Planck equation, describing the evolution of the probability density functional associated with Eqs. (8), (9) [16]:

$$P[\{\pi,\phi\},t+\Delta t]$$

$$= \exp\left(-\Delta t \pi_{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi_{i}}\right) \times \exp\left[\Delta t \frac{\partial}{\partial \pi_{i}} \left(\eta \pi_{i} + \frac{\partial H_{\text{lat}}}{\partial \phi_{i}}\right) + \Delta t \frac{\eta}{\beta} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \pi_{i}^{2}}\right] P[\{\pi,\phi\},t], \tag{10}$$

where summation over repeated indices is implied. For simplicity this will be assumed in what follows and indices will be dropped. The discrete time equation (10) can be written in the form

$$P[\{\pi,\phi\},t+\Delta t] = e^{-\Delta t H_{\text{FP}}} P[\{\pi,\phi\},t].$$
 (11)

The operators in the two exponents in Eq. (10) are non-commuting. To reduce Eq. (10) to the form (11) we use the Campbell-Baker-Hausdorff theorem: given the operators A and B, there is an operator C such that $e^A e^B = e^C$, with

$$C = A + B + \frac{1}{2}[A,B] + \frac{1}{12}[A,[A,B]] + \frac{1}{12}[B,[B,A]] + \dots$$
(12)

Expanding to first order in Δt , we have

$$H_{\text{FP}} = \frac{\eta}{\beta} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \pi^{2}} - \pi \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \pi} \left(\eta \pi + \frac{\partial H_{\text{lat}}}{\partial \phi} \right)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \Delta t \left[\eta \pi + \frac{\eta}{\beta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \pi} + \frac{\partial H_{\text{lat}}}{\partial \phi} \right] \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} - \frac{1}{2} \Delta t \pi \frac{\partial^{2} H_{\text{lat}}}{\partial \phi^{2}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \pi}$$

$$+ \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^{2}). \tag{13}$$

Notice that each factor of H_{lat} introduces a power of Δx .

The solution of $H_{\text{FP}}P[\{\phi,\pi\}]=0$ is the canonical distribution approached by the discretized system at late times. Its form can be computed for small Δt . To zeroth order for the momenta and order Δt for the fields, we obtain

$$P[\{\pi, \phi\}] = \exp\left(-\Delta x \sum_{i} \left[\beta' \frac{\pi_{i}^{2}}{2} + \beta S(\phi_{i})\right] - \Delta t \frac{\beta}{2} \pi_{i} \frac{\partial S}{\partial \phi_{i}}\right), \tag{14}$$

where $\beta' = \beta(1 + \Delta t \eta/2)$. Note that the discretization induces cross terms between ϕ and π in the canonical distribution. This is a general feature of higher order solutions in Δt . (These terms rapidly become very complicated.) Different time discretizations lead to different discrete time Fokker-Planck equations. The numerical simulations described below employed a stochastic second order Runge-Kutta algorithm [17].

The equilibrium density of configurations of the spaceand time-discretized theory is obtained by performing the Gaussian integral over the momenta in Eq. (14):

$$P[\{\phi\}] = A \exp\left[-\beta \Delta x \sum_{i} \left\{ S(\phi_{i}) - \frac{\Delta t^{2}}{8} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \phi_{i}}\right)^{2} \right\} \right]. \tag{15}$$

The effect of the time discretization is explicitly seen as a modification of the equilibrium density. Further integration of Eq. (14) cannot be performed so easily because each $S(\phi_i)$ depends also on ϕ_{i+1} . The functional integral of $P[\phi]$ over ϕ defines the configurational partition function

$$Z_{\phi} = Z_{\pi} \int D \phi e^{-\beta S[\phi]} = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \int d\overline{\phi}_{i} e^{-\beta \Delta S(\phi_{i})}, \quad (16)$$

which we study in the next section. Here $d\bar{\phi}_i = \bar{N} d\phi_i$, with $\bar{N} = \sqrt{\beta/2\pi\Delta x}$.

A calculation of the type outlined in this section can be used to evaluate the error due to finite Δt in the canonical distribution for more complicated time stepping than the Euler method considered above [18]. Alternatively, in cases where one is purely interested in sampling from a canonical distribution, there exist efficient "hybrid Monte Carlo" methods that randomize the momenta, then accept or discard configurations based on a Metropolis test [19]. These methods permit the elimination of the Δt dependence in the canonical distribution. However, they do not generate the dynamical evolution that we are interested in, such as trajectories of individual kinks. In practice we have found it possible, given Δx , to use a value of Δt and a time stepping algorithm such that the errors due to finite time steps are smaller than those due to finite grid spacing.

III. THE TRANSFER INTEGRAL

To compute the partition function we use the transfer integral method [4]. The configurational partition function Z_ϕ is given by

$$Z_{\phi} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\bar{\phi}_1 \dots d\bar{\phi}_N \prod_{i=1}^{N} T(\phi_i, \phi_{i+1}), \qquad (17)$$

where

$$T(\phi_{i},\phi_{i+1}) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\beta\Delta x \left[\left(\frac{\phi_{i+1}-\phi_{i}}{\Delta x}\right)^{2} + V(\phi_{i})\right] + V(\phi_{i+1})\right]\right\}$$

and $\phi_{N+1} = \phi_1$ implements spatially periodic boundary conditions. The difficulty with evaluating Z_{ϕ} lies in the coupling of integrals at different space points. The idea behind the transfer operator method is to "localize" the evaluation of the integrals in Eq. (17).

The transfer operator \hat{T} is defined as follows

$$\hat{T}\psi(\phi_{i+1}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\bar{\phi}_i T(\phi_i, \phi_{i+1}) \psi(\phi_i). \tag{18}$$

Suppose we can find the eigenvalues of \hat{T} . That is, suppose we can solve the following Fredholm equation:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\bar{\phi}_i T(\phi_i, \phi_{i+1}) \psi_n(\phi_i) = t_n \psi_n(\phi_{i+1}), \quad (19)$$

where the t_n are positive constants that we write for later convenience as

$$t_n = e^{-\beta \Delta x \epsilon_n}. \tag{20}$$

Then

$$Z_{\phi} = \sum_{n} t_{n}^{N}. \tag{21}$$

In the limit $N \rightarrow \infty$, the sum (21) is dominated by the largest eigenvalue:

$$Z_{\phi} = \sum_{n} t_{n}^{N} \rightarrow t_{0}^{N} = e^{-\beta L \epsilon_{0}}, \qquad (22)$$

where $L=N\Delta x$ is the physical length of the lattice. In the thermodynamic limit $L\to\infty$, the free energy density is simply $F_{\phi}=\epsilon_0$. It is clear that once the partition function is known in the thermodynamic limit, we may compute from it any thermodynamic quantity. Moreover, it is possible to show that spatial, and in linear response theory, temporal correlation functions can also be computed via a knowledge of the spectrum of the transfer operator [20].

We now turn to the procedure for the solution of Eq. (19) by first converting it into an infinite order partial differential equation. We first rewrite Eq. (19) as

$$e^{-1/2 \beta \Delta x V(\phi_{i+1})}$$

$$\times \int d\overline{\phi}_i e^{-\beta/2 \Delta x (\phi_{i+1} - \phi_i)^2} e^{(\phi_i - \phi_{i+1}) \partial/\partial \phi_{i+1}} \chi(\phi_{i+1})$$

$$= e^{-\beta \Delta x \epsilon_n} \psi_n(\phi_{i+1}), \qquad (23)$$

where

$$\chi(\phi) = e^{-1/2 \beta \Delta x V(\phi)} \psi_n(\phi). \tag{24}$$

The special form of the Fredholm kernel has led to a simple Gaussian integral that yields

$$e^{-1/2\beta\Delta xV(\phi_{i+1})}e^{(\Delta x/2\beta)\partial^2/\partial\phi_{i+1}^2}(e^{-1/2\beta\Delta xV(\phi_{i+1})}\psi_n(\phi_{i+1}))$$

$$=e^{-\beta\Delta x\epsilon_n}\psi_n(\phi_{i+1}). \tag{25}$$

This (exact) result yields the form $e^U e^D e^U \psi = e^C \psi$ where U and D are operators and C is a real number. The Campbell-Baker-Hausdorff (CBH) series in this case is formally an expansion in powers of Δx . To linear order in Δx , the CBH expansion applied to Eq. (25) yields

$$e^{-\beta\Delta xV(\phi)+(\Delta x/2\beta)(\partial^2/\partial\phi^2)}\psi_n(\phi) = e^{-\beta\Delta x\epsilon_n}\psi_n(\phi),$$
 (26)

or equivalently

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + V(\phi) \right] \psi_n = \epsilon_n \psi_n. \tag{27}$$

The transfer integral technique thus reduces the calculation of Z_{ϕ} to the calculation of the eigenvalues ϵ_n of a corresponding Schrödinger equation:

$$\left\{ -\frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + U(\phi, \Delta x) \right\} \psi_n = \epsilon_n \psi_n, \qquad (28)$$

where $U(\phi,0) = V(\phi)$. The calculation is explicitly performed on the lattice, at finite Δx : leading order corrections to the eigenvalues of the Schrödinger equation (28) are proportional to Δx^2 . For the problem at hand, one finds [7]

$$\left\{ -\frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + V(\phi) + \frac{1}{6} (\Delta x)^2 \left[\frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial \phi^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right] + \frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^3 V}{\partial \phi^3} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \frac{1}{8\beta^2} \frac{\partial^4 V}{\partial \phi^4} \right\} \psi_n = \epsilon_n \psi_n. \tag{29}$$

Higher order corrections in Δx in Eq. (29) can be computed in a tedious though straightforward fashion by going to higher orders in the CBH expansion. Because of the symmetric form of Eq. (25) and the Hermitian-anti-Hermitian alternation of terms in the CBH expansion, the error terms are always of even order in powers of Δx . Thus, if a method is found to cancel errors up to a certain order m, it automatically reduces the error to order m+2.

The simplest example of Δx dependence is the free theory: $V = \frac{1}{2}\phi^2$. Then Eq. (29) reduces to

$$\left[-\frac{1}{2\beta'^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{2} m'^2 \phi^2 \right] \psi_n = \epsilon_n \psi_n, \tag{30}$$

with $\beta' = \beta/\sqrt{1-a}$, $m' = \sqrt{1+a/2}$ and $a = (\Delta x)^2/6$. This implies in particular for the energy spectrum $\epsilon_n = (n + \frac{1}{2})m'/\beta' = (n + \frac{1}{2})(1/\beta)[1 - \frac{1}{24}(\Delta x)^2]$. The free theory is a convenient special case because the corresponding SPDE is linear and exactly solvable. Quantities such as $\langle \phi^2(x) \rangle$ can be evaluated exactly and compared to the results from the transfer integral. Both procedures agree, and

$$\langle \phi^{2}(x) \rangle = \frac{1}{2\beta} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{\Delta x^{2}}{4}}} = \frac{1}{2\beta} \left(1 - \frac{1}{8} \Delta x^{2} \right) + O(\Delta x^{4}).$$
 (31)

Note that the leading dependence on lattice spacing is proportional to Δx^2 .

We now turn to the question of lattice errors in determining the kink density, which, at sufficiently low temperatures, is controlled completely by the correlation length derived from the two-point function $\langle \phi(0)\phi(x)\rangle$. Applying the transfer integral formalism, it can be shown that this correlation function is a sum of exponentials with exponents proportional to differences of eigenvalues of Eq. (28). The correlation length is determined by the energy difference between the ground and first excited states of Eq. (28) [4]. At low temperatures, the WKB (or semiclassical) approximation is excellent and this energy difference is the exponentially small tunnel-splitting term. Note that at low temperatures the kink density is given directly by the correlation length, $\rho_k \approx 1/(4\lambda_\infty)$ [11].

At low temperatures the first two eigenfunctions of Eq. (27) are of the form

$$\psi_S = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_L + \psi_R),$$

$$\psi_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\psi_L - \psi_R), \tag{32}$$

where ψ_S is the (symmetric) ground state and ψ_A is the (antisymmetric) first excited state. Here ψ_L and ψ_R are the usual localized states, one on each side of the barrier. To estimate the error due to finite lattice spacing we use first order perturbation theory in $(\Delta x)^2$. The corrected energies are then

$$E_0^{(\Delta x)} = E_0 + \langle \psi_S | \delta H | \psi_S \rangle,$$

$$E_1^{(\Delta x)} = E_1 + \langle \psi_A | \delta H | \psi_A \rangle, \tag{33}$$

where E_0 and E_1 are the results from the continuum theory and $\delta H \sim O(\Delta x^2)$ is the error Hamiltonian. It follows that the energy difference is

$$\Delta E_{10}^{(\Delta x)} = \Delta E_{10} - 2\langle \psi_L | \delta H | \psi_R \rangle. \tag{34}$$

The error Hamiltonian can be read off from Eq. (29) and it is clear that the error in energy differences, and hence kink density at low temperatures, is also $O(\Delta x^2)$ at leading order. Corrections to the eigenstates lead to higher order Δx dependences.

More generally, given any eigenvector $|\psi\rangle$ of the continuum Schrödinger equation, for the specific form of δH of Eq. (29), integration by parts and use of Eq. (28) yields [7]

$$\langle \psi | \delta H | \psi \rangle = -\frac{(\Delta x)^2}{24} \langle \psi | \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}V}{\mathrm{d}\phi} \right)^2 | \psi \rangle.$$
 (35)

Apart from the eigenvectors, there is no temperature dependence in Eq. (35). This remarkable fact immediately suggests the introduction of a counterterm in the lattice equations which, in perturbation theory, would lead to the cancellation of errors of order $(\Delta x)^2$. Modifying the potential as follows,

$$V(\phi) = V(\phi) - \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{24} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}V}{\mathrm{d}\phi}\right)^2,\tag{36}$$

leads to the cancellation of lattice dependences to order $(\Delta x)^2$ in a way that preserves the fluctuation-dissipation relation (taken at any temperature) and is thus suited for dynamics as well as thermodynamics. With Δx taken to be small enough, the leading error now becomes dominantly $O(\Delta x)^4$. We note that unlike the situation for partial differential equations (PDE's) where one improves the lattice approximation for spatial derivatives, here a local counterterm produces the same effect.

In the specific case of a ϕ^4 potential, the counterterm (36) gives a new potential including the term $-\Delta x^2 \phi^6/24$. The corrected potential is thus unbounded from below. In first order perturbation theory this is not a problem since the corresponding wave function is exponentially small in the pathological region of the compensated potential [7]. However, if the full potential is to be used in a Langevin simulation it is clear that at sufficiently long times, the unboundedness of the potential implies the nonexistence of a stable thermal distribution. Fortunately, it is simple to estimate whether this problem actually shows up in real simulations. The answer, as we show below, is that it is of absolutely no practical significance in the parameter range of interest.

The resolution of this apparent difficulty brings us back to the validity of the expansion in Δx . So far we have implicitly assumed that $\beta \approx 1$, so that Δx is the only small parameter and controls the order of the expansion. If on the other hand one wanted to work in a regime where $\Delta x \geqslant \beta$, the whole expansion in Δx would have to be rederived in terms of an appropriate small parameter. In any case this latter regime would always constitute a poor approximation to the continuum: It is the Ising (disorder) limit of the field theory.

A simple argument for why the counterterm works at small temperatures, meaning $\Delta x \ll \beta$, is the following. Consider a large temperature relative to the potential barrier between the minima. Then, from the uncorrected eigenvalue equation, $\langle \phi(x)^2 \rangle \approx \beta^{-1}$. On the other hand, the value of $\phi(x)^2$ for which a fluctuation can probe the effect of the negative ϕ^6 term at large ϕ is $\phi^2(x) \approx 6/(\Delta x)^2$. Therefore

the condition for the negative ϕ^6 term to not affect the evolution is $\Delta^2 x \ll 6\beta$. At lower temperatures it is more appropriate to explicitly calculate the Kramers escape rate [21] across the barrier separating the metastable and unstable regions of the compensated potential. Assuming the lattice sites to be uncoupled (this gives an overestimate of the true rate), the calculation yields $\Gamma_K \sim \exp(-4\beta/3(\Delta x)^4)$, which turns out to be vanishingly small in practice: For $\Delta x = 0.5$, $\beta = 5$, and a lattice size of 10^6 points, the probability of an escape at a single site per unit time is only $\sim 10^{-41}$. In our numerical calculations we have verified that the counterterm can indeed be successfully used in the appropriate circumstances with no hint of any instabilities.

IV. THE ONE LOOP APPROACH

In contrast to the above considerations, the one-loop counterterm proposed in Ref. [13] arises from the conjecture that the leading dependence of the partition function on Δx coincides with the most divergent term for the same theory in higher dimensions. Although the relevant computations are well known we will spell out some of the steps to make every assumption clear. The basic idea is to start again with the canonical partition function:

$$Z = N \int D\phi e^{-\beta S[\phi]}.$$
 (37)

The field ϕ is then decomposed into a background field ϕ_b and a fluctuation field χ , $\phi = \phi_b + \chi$, and assuming the fluctuations to be small, expanded around ϕ_b :

$$S[\phi_b + \chi] \approx S[\phi_b] + \frac{\delta S}{\delta \phi} \bigg|_{\chi=0} \chi + \frac{1}{2} \chi \frac{\delta^2 S}{\delta \phi^2} \bigg|_{\chi=0} \chi + \dots$$
(38)

If ϕ_b is an extremum of $S[\phi]$ then the first term vanishes. Under this assumption

$$Z = Ne^{-\beta S[\phi_b]} \int D\chi e^{-\beta (1/2) \chi (\delta^2 S/\delta \phi^2)|_{\chi = 0} \chi}.$$
 (39)

Because $\delta^2 S/\delta\phi^2|_{\chi=0}$ is independent of χ the functional integration is strictly Gaussian and can be performed exactly:

$$N \int D\chi e^{-\beta (1/2)/\chi (\delta^2 S/\delta \phi^2)}|_{\chi=0} \chi = \text{Det}^{-1/2} \left(\frac{S_I''}{S_0''} \right). \quad (40)$$

Here we have adopted the usual normalization to the free theory. The action $S = S_0 + S_I$, was decomposed into the action for the free theory S_0 (gradient and mass terms) and the interactions S_I . Primes denote functional derivatives relative to ϕ .

This can be written as

$$Det^{-1/2} \left(\frac{S''}{S_0''} \right) = Det^{-1/2} (1+K) = e^{-(1/2)Tr \log(1+K)},$$
(41)

where $K = S_I''/S_0''$. Performing the 1D *k*-space trace integral, (m=0), with an ultraviolet cutoff $\Lambda = \pi/\Delta x$, we obtain one loop corrections to the potential

$$V_{1L}(\phi, \Lambda) = V_0 + \frac{T}{4} \sqrt{S_I''(\phi_b)} - \frac{T\Delta x}{4\pi^2} S_I''(\phi_b). \tag{42}$$

The partition function is now approximately given by

$$Z = e^{-\beta S[\phi_b] + (1/4\beta)\sqrt{S_I''(\phi_b)} - (\Delta x/4\beta\pi^2)S_I''(\phi_b)}.$$
 (43)

Equations (42) and (43) constitute the basis for the proposal of Ref. [13]. In order to cancel the leading Δx dependence arising in this scheme, the original bare potential is modified by the addition of the last term in Eq. (42) (with a positive sign).

Notice that while a careful accounting of the dynamics on the lattice yields a leading correction of order $(\Delta x)^2$, regardless of any assumptions about the dominant thermodynamic field configurations, the one-loop procedure leads to a correction of order Δx . In contrast to the correct answer discussed in the previous section, the one-loop procedure gives no corrections for the free theory since in this case $S_I \equiv 0$.

V. COMPARISON WITH NUMERICAL SOLUTIONS

Accurate Langevin studies of even one-dimensional field theories require large lattices and long running times. It has only recently been realized, by comparison against exact analytic results for nonlinear field theories, that fairly large errors (e.g., 30% or greater in the kink density) can easily arise if numerical studies are not carried out with careful error control methodologies [12].

In order to test the predictions of the previous sections, we ran large scale Langevin evolutions with typical lattice sizes $N=10^6$, and with the time step related to the lattice spacing by $\Delta t = 0.05\Delta x^2$.

A first test which allows comparison against exact analytical results are the lattice dependences for the linear SPDE (free theory) defined by $V(\phi) = \phi^2/2$. Figure 1 shows the plot of the thermal equilibrium $1 - \langle \phi^2 \rangle$ versus Δx . The numerical data are in excellent agreement with the (exact) theoretical predictions.

In the more general case of a nonlinear SPDE, we cannot expect explicit exact solutions for arbitrary Δx , but thermodynamic quantities can be obtained to order Δx^2 from the eigenvalues of the perturbed Schrödinger equation extracted from the transfer integral, as described in Sec. III. In the case of predictions for the kink density, precise comparison with numerical results has not been possible until recently, partly due to the difficulty of counting the number of kinks in a noisy configuration. The correlation length is, however, a well-defined quantity at any temperature, independent of kink-counting schemes.

We extract the correlation length λ_∞ from the numerically determined field configurations as follows. Let

$$c(i\Delta x) = \langle \phi(j)\phi(j+i)\rangle, \tag{44}$$

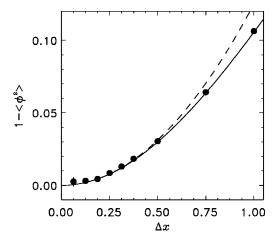


FIG. 1. The dependence of $1-\langle \phi^2 \rangle$ on Δx , for $V(\phi)=\phi^2/2$. The numerical results (\bullet) at $\beta=2$ are compared with the exact equilibrium result (31) (solid line). The dashed line shows the Taylor expansion of Eq. (31) to order Δx^2 . Statistical error bars are not shown if they are smaller than the symbol size.

and

$$\lambda(x) = \Delta x \left(\log \left(\frac{c(x)}{c(x + \Delta x)} \right) \right)^{-1}.$$
 (45)

The correlation length is $\lim_{x\to\infty} \lambda(x)$:

$$\langle \phi(0)\phi(x)\rangle \rightarrow \exp(-x/\lambda_{\infty}), \quad x \rightarrow \infty.$$
 (46)

The correlation function c(x) is in general a sum of exponentials (the smallest exponent being the correlation length). For values of x much smaller than the correlation length, therefore, $\lambda(x) < \lambda_{\infty}$. In practice, for large x, finite statistics mean that the ratio in Eq. (45) cannot be evaluated precisely. One therefore evaluates the correlation length by plotting $\lambda(x)$ versus x and looking for a plateau at intermediate values of x.

We measured the correlation length using three different Langevin evolutions: (a) A standard simulation using a second-order stochastic Runge-Kutta integrator; (b) a simulation with the counterterm (36); (c) a simulation with the counterterm proposed in Ref. [13]. Results for $\Delta x = 0.5$ are shown in Fig. 2. The counterterm (36) shifts the result from the Langevin evolutions (a) on the lattice very close to the exact continuum result, shown as a dashed line. The standard simulation overestimates λ_{∞} , whereas the one-loop counterterm results in an underestimate with an error larger than the 'bare' simulation (a) without any counterterm.

As a further test we repeated, with large lattices and smaller time steps, a numerical experiment presented in Ref. [13]. The initial condition is chosen uniform at the minimum of $V(\phi)$, $\phi_0 = -1$; the system is then run for a short time (before any kinks appear) so as to observe the relaxation to a mean value ϕ_m . Although this does not result in a strictly thermalized configuration, small wavelength fluctuations quickly display a thermal spectrum. (In other words, the "phonon" relaxation time is much smaller than the timescale for kink nucleation.) In Fig. 3 we show the value of $\langle \phi \rangle$

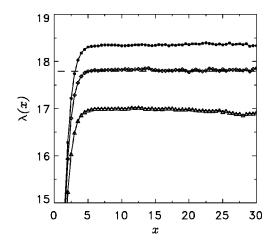


FIG. 2. The correlation length λ computed with the bare potential (\bullet), the counterterm of Eq. (36) (\diamond) and the one-loop counterterm (\triangle), for Δx =0.5 and β =5. The dashed line shows the continuum exact result, computed via the transfer integral.

as a function of time for four values of Δx . From the plateau for moderate times, we can obtain a fairly precise estimate of ϕ_m . As a cautionary note, we point out that at small Δx , a small step size is also needed (see Fig. 4).

It is possible to employ a Gaussian approximation (following Ref. [11]) to obtain a rather good estimate of ϕ_m as a function of Δx , the result being shown in Fig. 5: The leading dependence, both analytically and numerically, is clearly quadratic in Δx . To obtain the analytic result, we use the fact that the probability density of ϕ is the square of the ground state of the Schrödinger equation (28). (This density emerges from dynamic simulations or calculations; it is not an input to numerics.)

We proceed further by using a Gaussian ansatz [11] for the ground state eigenfunction of (27):

$$\psi_0(\phi) = \left(\frac{\Omega}{\pi}\right)^{1/4} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\Omega(\phi - \phi_0)^2\right). \tag{47}$$

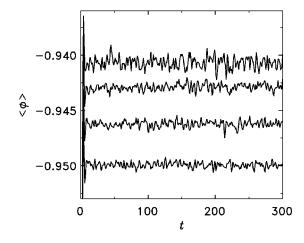


FIG. 3. Early evolution of the space-averaged mean value of ϕ for different values of the lattice spacing Δx . From top to bottom, the lattice spacings are Δx =0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1.0. We used lattices of 1 048 576 points and Δt =0.05 Δx^2 . β =10, η =1.

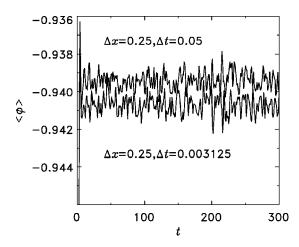


FIG. 4. Early evolution of the space-averaged mean value of ϕ for two values of the time step Δt , with $\beta = 10$, $\eta = 1$.

The parameters Ω and ϕ_0 are obtained by minimizing the energy

$$E_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_0(\phi) \left(-\frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + V(\phi) \right) \psi_0(\phi) d\phi. \tag{48}$$

For large β the two free parameters are related by

$$\Omega = \beta (3 \phi_0^2 - 1)^{1/2} + \mathcal{O}(1), \tag{49}$$

and

$$E_0 = -\frac{1}{2}\phi_0^2 + \frac{1}{4}\phi_0^4 + \beta^{-1}\frac{1}{2}(3\phi_0^2 - 1)^{1/2} + \mathcal{O}(\beta^{-2}). \tag{50}$$

The dependence of ϕ_m on Δx can now be estimated using the Gaussian approximation of Eq. (47). At finite Δx , we replace $V(\phi)$ in Eq. (48) by $V(\phi) + \frac{1}{24} \Delta x^2 (\mathrm{d}/\mathrm{d}\phi) \ V(\phi))^2$. Minimizing Eq. (50) with respect to ϕ_0 gives

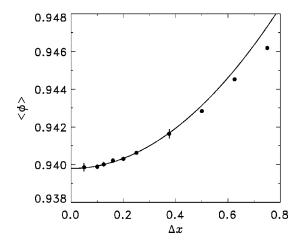


FIG. 5. Space- and time-averaged mean value of ϕ for different values of the lattice spacing Δx . The solid line is the large- β estimate (51) obtained from the Gaussian ansatz (47) with β =10, η =1. Statistical error bars are not shown if they are smaller than the symbol size.

$$\phi_0(\Delta x) = \phi_0(0) + \beta^{-1} \Delta x^2 \frac{11}{64\sqrt{2}} + \mathcal{O}(\beta^{-2}),$$
 (51)

which is plotted in Fig. 5, in excellent agreement with the numerical results.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

We have presented a procedure to identify space and time discreteness effects in Langevin studies of (1+1)-dimensional field theories on the lattice. This scheme permits the determination of the correct continuum limit of the theory in thermal equilibrium. In particular, we have shown that for the standard spatial discretization of the Langevin equation, quantities of interest such as the kink density and the expectation value of the field and its variance differ from the continuum values by terms of order Δx^2 . High resolution numerical results are in excellent agreement with our analytical predictions.

In any numerical Langevin solution, errors result from the necessary discretization in both time and space. The effect of the former is to modify the form of the canonical distribution as seen from the stationary solution of the corresponding Fokker-Planck equation. The use of higher order time stepping algorithms can render this error subdominant when compared to errors arising from the discretization of the spatial lattice.

Spatial discretization errors can be computed systematically in powers of $(\Delta x)^2$ via the use of the transfer integral to solve for the partition function on the lattice. This procedure leads to the identification of a simple local counterterm that removes the leading order lattice error in Langevin evolutions at low temperature.

For the ϕ^4 theory in one space dimension, the density of kinks converges to a well-defined value at any temperature low enough that kinks are clearly separated from small wave-length fluctuations (or "phonons"). In practice this is essentially the range of temperatures where the dilute gas approximation (which is equivalent to a WKB solution of the transfer integral) is valid. Precision calculations over a wide range of temperatures that agree with transfer integral predictions are reported in Ref. [12]. For quantities that are defined unambiguously at arbitrary temperatures, such as the correlation length, results based on the WKB approximation to the transfer integral will fail at sufficiently high temperatures. This is independent of lattice errors and does not preclude analytical and numerical study using lattice simulations.

Our results disagree with those reported by Gleiser and Müller based on a one-loop counterterm [13]. A critical examination of their proposal has shown that it does not in fact constitute a scheme for the control and elimination of lattice errors. We have also carried out a direct comparison of our numerical results with those presented in Ref. [13] and are led to conclude that their data must have been of insufficient quality to quantitatively characterize lattice spacing dependences.

Finally we wish to reiterate that the methods presented

here depend on the use of the transfer integral to solve (exactly) for the nonperturbative field thermodynamics. The application of the procedure described above is in general guaranteed for any (local) field theory in one spatial dimension, requiring only the choice of the appropriate potential.

In higher dimensions such a solution becomes increasingly difficult. Nevertheless, for the particular case of two dimensions several lattice models can be solved exactly, precisely by applying the transfer integral technique [22]. The eigenvalue problem, elegantly posed in terms of an ordinary time-independent Schödinger equation in one dimension, now amounts to solving for the eigenvalues of an infinite matrix. Regardless of this apparent difficulty, exact solutions

are known in several interesting cases, most notably perhaps for the 2D Ising model on a square lattice. It is therefore conceivable that the detailed approach to the continuum in these models can be understood via the procedure described above.

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